	Meteorological and snow distribution data in the Izas Experimental
	<b>Catchment (Spanish Pyrenees) from 2011 to 2017</b>
	In situ observations of meteorological variables and snowpack
	distribution at the Izas Experimental Catchment (Spanish
5	Pyrences): The importance of high quality data in sub-alpine
	ambients.
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45	Vitoria, Spain
15	<b>Abstract:</b> This work describes the snow and meteorological dataset available for the
i	Abstract: This work describes the show and incleorological dataset available for the Izas Experimental Catchment in the Central Spanish Pyranees, from the 2011 to 20167
	snow seasons. The experimental site is located onin the southern side of the Pyrenees
	between 2000 and 2300 m above see level covering with an area extension of 55 ha
20	The site is a good example of a sub-alpine ambient environment in which the dynamics
20	of snow accumulation and melting dynamics have are of major importance in many
	$\underline{or}$ show accumulation and meeting dynamics have $\underline{or}$ major importance in many mountain processes. The climatic dataset dataset consists of ( <i>i</i> ) continuous
	meteorological variables acquired from an Automatic Weather Station (AWS). (ii)
	detailed information on snow depth distribution collected with a Terrestrial Laser
25	Scanner (TLS, LiDAR technology) for certain dates along across the snow season
	(between 3 and 6 TLS surveys per snow season) and ( <i>iii</i> ) time-lapse images that
	showing the evolution of the Snow Covered Area-evolution (SCA). The-includes
	information on different meteorological variables acquired in the with an Automatic
	Weather Station (AWS) such asare precipitation, air temperature, incoming and
30	reflected short solar radiation and long wave infrared surface temperature radiation,
	relative humidity, wind speed and direction, atmospheric air pressure, surface
	temperature (snow or soil surface) and soil temperature; all were taken of them at 10
ļ	minute intervals. Snow depth distribution was measured during 23 field campaigns
	using a Terrestrial Laser Scanner (TLS), and there is also available daily information
35	onof the Snow Covered Area (SCA) was also retrieved from time-lapse photography.

# The

data

(https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.848277https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.579979) is valuable since it provides high spatial resolution information on the snow depth and snow cover distribution, which is particularly useful when combinedin combination with meteorological variables to simulate the snow energy and mass balance. This information has already been analyzed in variousdifferent scientific studies onworks studying snow pack dynamics and its interaction with the local climatology or terrain topographical characteristics. However, the database generated till the date has great potential for understanding other environmental processes from a hydrometerological or

set

<sup>10</sup> ecological perspective in which snow dynamics play a determinant role.

# **1. Introduction**

The sSnowpack distribution and its temporal evolution have a marked influence onin many mountain processes. For instance, These include erosion rates and sediment transport (Colbeck et al., 1979; Lana-Renault et al., 2011), geomorphological and glaciological processes (López-Moreno et al., 2015; Serrano et al., 2001), and

- phenological cycles (Liston, 1999; Wipf et al., 2009) are directly controlled by the evolution on time timing of snow distribution cover over time. InOn the other hand, snow melting dynamics areis also of has major importance from a hydrological perspective since one-sixth of thetotal Earth's total population depends on the water storage in mountain rivers headwaters (Barnett et al., 2005). In downstream areas exposed to extreme climatic conditions, the snowmelt runoff from mountain areas becomes a key element -(Viviroli et al., 2007), especially in these-zones affected by water shortages.subjected to water scarcity. Such This is the case of semi-arid regions, likeas the Mediterranean area, which is characterized by an irregular climate with long
- drought periods (Vicente-Serrano, 2006), and therefore by its dependence it is highly dependent on water stored in mountain areas, such as the Pyrenees-is quite high (López-Moreno, 2005; López-Moreno et al., 2008).

The Pyrenees are a mid-latitude mountain range, with significant snowfalls in the-more elevated presence in high elevation areas throughoutalong the year. During the boreal

- 20 spring, Pyrenean river discharges depend on the snow-melt melting of snowtiming, directly accounting from snow aboutwith approximately 40% of spring runoff being directly attributable to snow (López-Moreno and García-Ruiz, 2004). Thus, snow accumulation has a heavylarge influence on Pyrenean headwaters. This dependence is mostly<del>rather</del> due to the generally continuous snow cover from November to April above
- 2000 m above sea level (a.s.l.) (Alvera and Garcia-Ruiz, 2000; García-Ruiz et al., 1986; 25 López-Moreno et al., 2001). This way and, therefore, the study of the snowpack atim high elevations-areas of in the Pyrenees is crucial for understanding and managing mountain river discharges (López-Moreno, 2005), especially in the scenario offrame of a global climate change-scenario (García-Ruiz et al., 2011). However, the existence of
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continuous snow observations above 2000 m a.s.l. is scarce in this mountain range, sincebeing most of them only have informationavailable from 1600 to 2000 m a.s.l. and when available these observations spam span those that are available only cover short time spans.<del>periods.</del> Therefore, by well-established study areas atim high elevations with,

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having continuous measurements of meteorological variables and snowpack distribution are required in the Pyrenees.

In t<u>T</u>his paper, it is present<u>s</u>ed the recently acquired dataset of meteorological and snowpack variables obtained from a small size experimental catchment onof the

- 5 southern <u>faceside</u> of the Pyrenees. Although meteorological and hydrological data are available <u>fromsince</u> previous years (some variables <u>have beenwere</u> measured since <u>the</u> late <u>1980s</u><del>80's</del> (Alvera and Garcia-Ruiz, 2000)), we <u>presentoffer</u> data from <u>the</u> 2011/12 to <u>20152016</u>/1<u>76</u> snow season<u>s</u>, as data series <u>provide</u> higher quality and continuity, and also <u>they</u>-match <u>with</u>-in situ observations of snow depth and snow cover.
- 10 The dataset consists of (i) continuous meteorological variables acquired from an Automatic Weather Station (AWS), (ii) detailed information on snow depth distribution collected with a Terrestrial Laser Scanner (TLS, LiDAR technology) for certain dates acrossalong the snow season (between 3-2 and 6 TLS surveys per snow season) and (iii) time-lapse images that showing the Snow Covered Area evolution (SCA). Some years
- 15 of this dataset haves already been used to study the topographic control on snow depth distribution (Revuelto et al., 2014b), the spatial variability of snow-pack at different distances (López.Moreno et al., 2012) or to investigateing how detailed snowpack simulation could be improved by including snow distribution information (Revuelto et al., 2016a,b).
- 20 The paper is structured as follows: Section 2 describes the study area characteristics; Section 3 presents meteorological data acquired from the AWS with a general description of the observed climatology; Section 4 describes the distributed measurements on snow depth distribution from the TLS and the SCA derived from time-lapse images; Section 5 concludes with information for downloading the database;
- and finally Section 6 summarizes all information available and the potential application of the database

# 2. Study area characteristics and climatology

#### 2.1. The Pyrenees

30 The Pyrenees lies <u>onin</u> the northeastern <u>borderlimit</u> of the Iberian Peninsula (Figure 1) and form. It is an orographic barrier between <u>the</u> north and south faces. This way a <u>Due</u> to this, progressively higher aridity is found <u>toward the southsouthward</u> as a consequence of the mountain range blocksing humid air masses from the Atlantic

(López-Moreno and Vicente-Serrano, 2007; Vicente-Serrano, 2005). Thus, the natural barrier directly influences precipitation, leading toand as a consequence areas above 2000 m a.s.l. receivinge about 2000 mm/year, increasing to 2500 mm/year- in the highest divides of the mountain range and rapidly decreasinge to 600-800 mm/year in low elevation areas onf the southern side (García-Ruiz, et al., 2001).

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Another distinct feature of the Pyrenees is their location between two water masses with contrastinged conditions; i.e., in the western side is the Atlantic Ocean is on the west side, while in the east side lays the Mediterranean Sea lies in the east. This positionsituation between both water masses causesoriginates a climatic transition from 10 Oceanic to Mediterranean conditions into the east. During autumn, fronts approaching from the Atlantic bring the highest monthly averages of precipitation in the western observatories, reaching the with their total contribution accounting forof all these fronts 40% of total annual precipitation in this area (Creus-Novau, 1983). <del>a</del> OppositelyConversely, spring and summer storms mostly affect the eastern areas of the Pyrenees, being favored promoted by the development of zones where sea breezes and 15 local winds convergence zones that to initiate deep moist convection along the eastern fringe of the Iberian Mediterranean area (Azorin-Molina et al., 2015). Therefore, by Pyrenean observatories in the east record a large numberhave a major contribution of

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- convective events; e.g., reaching ai.e up to 32% of total annual precipitation in eastern valleys, but-and dropping below 16% of annual precipitation in western valleys (Cuadrat et al., 2007). In early winter, the arrival of fronts from the northwest and west are the most frequent, leading to the highest snow accumulation being found in the western Pyrenees (Navarro-Serrano and López-Moreno, 2017). The Azores high, which usually affects the Iberian Peninsula for at certain times in thesome winter periods,
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originatesgives rise to relatively long periods with no snow accumulation in this season. Subsequently, in spring, snow accumulation isare associated with southwesterly advections, which lead to highheavy snow accumulations in the western Pyrenees (Revuelto et al., 2012). Snow remains for long periods above 1600 m a.s.l., between November and April (López-Moreno and Nogués-Bravo, 2006).

30 Similarly to precipitation, air temperature is influenced by the Atlantic-Mediterranean transitions, but elevation plays a major role inon its distribution. For instance, the lower annual thermal amplitude is-observed in the western Pyrenees is because of the proximity of the ocean-proximity (Cuadrat et al., 2007). As a general tendency in the

Central Pyrenees, the annual 0°C isotherms lielays between 2700 and 2900 m a.s.l. (del Barrio et al., 1990; Chueca, J., 1993).

Additionally the Pyrenees exhibit a high inter-annual variability in air temperature and precipitation, which makes involve great uncertainty in the annual snow accumulation

- very uncertain (López-Moreno, 2005). This variability is influenced by the inter-annual 5 variability of atmospheric circulation, being identified with -a decrease of snow accumulation weather types being identified under positive North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) phases (López-Moreno and Vicente-Serrano, 2007). As observed with precipitation, snow accumulation correlates towith Atlantic-Mediterranean proximity and distance from to the main divide of the mountain range (Revuelto et al., 2012), and
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is strongly dependent on the fluctuations of the 0°C isotherm during winter and spring. This high climatic variability is also the cause of originates a large inter-annual variability in total snow accumulation and on-its temporal distribution acrossalong the snow season (López-Moreno, 2005).

#### 2.2. The Izas Experimental Catchment 15

The Izas Experimental Catchment (42°44' N, 0°25' W) has a surface area of 33 ha, but snow depth information covers a total of 55 ha, with elevations ranging between 2075 and 2325 m a.s.l. This area is close to the main divide of the Pyrenees in the headwaters of the Gállego River, near the Spain-France border (Figure 1). The Izas Experimental

20 Catchment exemplifies the general characteristics of sub-alpine areas of the Pyrenees. In this environment, snowpack dynamics are of have a major importance throughout along the year. Thus the atmosphere-snowpack interactions observed at this experimental site will enable <u>ato</u> better understanding of many processes inof sub-alpine areas.

The mean annual precipitation is 2000 mm, and snow accounts for approximately 50%

- of total precipitation (Anderton et al., 2004). For an average of 130 days each year the 25 mean daily air temperature is below 0 °C, with a mean annual air temperature of 3 °C, (del Barrio et al., 1997). Snow covers a high percentage of the catchment from November to the end of May (López-Moreno et al., 2010). Lithology shows limestones and sandstones of the Cretaceous period, and limestones of the Paleocene, much more
- resistant to erosion. <u>The  $Z_z$  onal vegetation type</u> corresponds to a high mountain steppe, 30 mainly covered by bunch grasses, namely Festuca eskia, Nardus stricta, Trifolium alpinum, Plantago alpine and Carex sempervirens. Rocky outcrops dominate in-the upper and steeper slopes (less than 15% of the study area). There are not trees present in the study area. The catchment is predominantly east-facing, with some areas also facing

north or south. The mean slope of the catchment is 16° (López-Moreno et al., 2012), with the topographic characteristics displayinghaving the typical high spatial heterogeneity on its topographic characteristics of sub-alpine areas, having with flat concave and convex areas.

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# 3. Meteorological data

The study site is equipped with an AWS located in the lower elevation of the catchment (42° 44' 33.65''N, 0° 25' 8.83''W, 2113 m a.s.l., Figure 1), located in a flat open area with sparse vegetation (mountain pastures). The AWS measures wind speed and direction, atmospheric air temperature, relative humidity and air pressure, soil temperature for 0 cm, 5 cm, 10 cm and 20 cm, temperature of the surface close to the AWS (snow or soil, depending on whetherif snow is present or not), global and reflected solar irradiance, snow depth and precipitation (the precipitation gauge is

- located at 15 m of-from the AWS tower) (see Figure 2). Information on the main 15 atmospheric variables has been recorded since the end of 2011 (AWS installed on November 2011). Therefore, data availability covers five complete snow seasons. Since the station is located in the lower elevation of the catchment and despite air temperature lapse rate with elevation, the AWS records serve to describeaverage the evolution of atmospheric variables occurring at the Izas Experimental Catchment.
- 20 The data acquisition system consists of a Campbell Scientific CR3000 datalogger that samples each instrument and stores data at 10-minute time intervals. All data is transmitted via modem to the Pyrenean Institute of Ecology whereand once received we apply some automatic quality-control checks are applied to removefor removing outliers. Data gaps are rare for almost all variables and, therefore, instead of gap-filling
- with interpolation methods, only measured data are available. However, some variables 25 had long data gaps and certainthereby some periods have been discarded fromfor further analysis. This is the case of precipitation for the first three snow seasons, which were useless because of the length of data gaps.
- Since the main application of the data collected by the AWS is to assess the assessment of the snow cover evolution of snow cover in the study area, in the following 30 subsections we focus our analyses on the accumulation and melting periods: i.e., accumulation (January, February and March; JFM) and melting (April, May and June;

AMJ).-periods Annual values observed during a whole snow season are also presented for each sub-section.

### 3.1. Wind speed and direction

The AWS is equipped with a Young wind monitor - ALPINE MODEL Young

- Company, Model 05103-45-5, Wind Monitor -Alpine Model specifications © 5 2010)(Young Company, Model 05103-45-5; http://www.youngusa.com/Brochures/05103-45%20(0613).pdf), placed atin the highest point of the meteorological tower (8 m above the ground). The Pyrenees are commonly affected by strong westerly to northerly winds as shown in the wind roses displayed in Figure 3. With the exception of south winds 10 that mainly occurring during the melting period, westerly to northerly winds dominate.
  - Additionally, the the most frequently frequency of moderate to strong winds come from the north-west.. winds mainly occurs for northwesterly winds.

3.2. Air temperature, relative humidity and atmospheric air pressure

Air temperature and relative humidity wereare measured with the HMP155 Vaisala

- 15 sensor (Vaisala Company, HMP155 Humidity and Temperature Probe specifications © 2012http://www.vaisala.com/Vaisala%20Documents/Brochures%20and%20Datasheets/ HMP155-Datasheet-B210752EN-E-LoRes.pdf), and atmospheric air pressure\_was-is recorded with the BP1 sensor from Adcon telemetry (Adcon Telemetry Company, BP1 Pressure Sensor specifications, Barometric  $\bigcirc$ 2015
- 20 http://www.adcon.com/download/leaflet bp1 barometric pressure/). The HMP 155 humidity and temperature probe wasis placed inside a standard radiation shield and at 3.2 m from the ground in order to preventavoid that the snowpack from eventually coverings the sensors.
- AlongOver the five six snow seasons analyzed, the mean annual air temperature ranged between 5.26°C (2014/15-snow season) and 3.51-°C (2012/13-snow season), with an average value of 4.5963 °C. The accumulation period has shown a The mean air temperature in the accumulation period that ranged from -2.78°C (2012/13) to -0.56°C (2016/17)-1.15 °C (2011/12 snow season), being -1.79 °C the with an average value of -1.79°C for the whole study period. Finally, the melting period returned showed a mean 30 value of 5.516-°C ranging from 2.79-°C (2012/13-snow season) to 7.58°C (2016/17)to 7.30 °C (2014/15 snow season). Table 1 shows that the 2012/13 snow season was the coldest inone of the study period. Figure 4 depicts the temporal evolution of air

temperature and other variables observed in the AWS from 2011 to 2016. Thus, this

figure shows the control points forof air temperature on the ground and the surface temperature.

The relative air humidity and the atmospheric air pressure are shown in Tables 2 and 3, respectively. The mean annual value of the relative humidity for the five seasons is

65%, with a 7167% during the accumulation period, and 669% during the melt\_ing one. 5 Similarly, atmospheric air pressure has a mean annual value of 791 mb, with 7897 mbbeing for the accumulation period 789 mb and 79288 mb for the melt.for the melting period 788 mb.

#### **3.3 Ground temperature**

- 10 On 22 November 2012 four Campbell Scientific "107 temperature probes" (Campbell Ltd. 107 temperature Probe. Scientific C 2012https://s.campbellsci.com/documents/es/manuals/107.pdf ) were installed in the AWS to measure ground temperature at different depths. One sensor was located in the atmosphere-ground interface (slightly buried, 0 cm depth), while the other three were
- respectively placed at depths of 5 cm, 10 cm and 20 cm-depths. Table 4 and Figure 4 15 show the average values of ground temperatures and the temporal evolution of ground temperature. There exists a lack of dData is lacking from aAugust 2016 onwards because temperature probes were damaged by cows. The average values during the period with information for the 0 cm, 5 cm, 10 cm and 20 cm depths are respectively: 5.26±6.22 °C, 4.97±5.52 °C, 4.93±6.17 °C, 4.89±4.56 °C.
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The temporal evolution of air and ground temperatures depicts the impact of the snowpack-presence on ground energy dynamics. The snowpack shelters ground from the high temporal variability of air temperature. Therefore, the daily variability in ground temperatures have a is significantly lowersmooth decrease in the daily variability. Additionally, it is observed how the Furthermore, the different ground temperatures tend to reach 0°C while snow covers the ground; i.e., the typical soil-snow

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#### 30 3.4. Surface temperature

interface temperature.

At the same date of Together with the installation of the ground temperature sensors, an IR100 infrared remote temperature sensor (Campbell Scientific Ltd, IR100/IR120 Infra-© <u>2015</u>Campbell Scientific, sensor. remote temperature https://s.campbellsci.com/documents/eu/manuals/ir100\_ir120.pdf\_) was also set up to

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measure surface temperature of near target ground or snow. On-Table 5 showsis shown the average land surface temperatures. The mean annual surface temperature is 2.56°C, with a mean value of  $-4.581^{\circ}$ C during the accumulation period and  $3.2794^{\circ}$ C during the melting period.

- The infrared remote sensor shows the tendency of the snow surface tendency to cooling 5 faster than soil. During winter and spring, while snow is present on the ground, the differences between air and surface temperature are more marked, with surface temperatures always observed to be lowerair temperature and surface temperature shows higher differences, being always observed lower surface temperatures (see the
- 10 occurrence of snow below the AWS when lower surface temperatures are observed in Figure 4). This is-plainly exemplifies ying the higher energy irradiance of snow when compared to free-snow-free soils.

### 3.5 Global and reflected solar irradiance

The AWS also obtains information on the global and reflected solar irradiance with a

- 15 CMA 6 Kipp&Konen albedometer Kipp & Zonen, CMP/CMA series pyranometer and albedometer ©. 2015) (http://www.kippzonen.com/Download/72/Manual-Pyranometers-CMP-series-English)placed at 3.4 m height. Figure 4 shows the daily evolution of the values recorded, and how these are interrelated, with increasing the reflected radiation increasing at the same time as the incident.when incident does. The
- average values of these variables are presented in Table 6. For the whole period, the 20 average values of the incident radiation are 207.97 W/m<sup>2</sup>day, taking complete snow seasons into account-considering complete snow seasons, 164.73161.15-W/m<sup>2</sup> day afor<del>ccounting</del> accumulation-periods, and 280.95 276.93 W/m<sup>2</sup>day for<del>considering</del> all melting periods. Similarly, the reflected radiation average values are: 83.67 W/m<sup>2</sup>day for entire snow seasons, <u>109.69</u> 109.57 W/m<sup>2</sup>day for the accumulation periods and

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 $117.06 \frac{119.57}{100} W/m^2 day$  for melting periods.

Similarly to ground and surface temperatures, the radiation reflected is heavilymarkedly influenced by the presence of snow, presence. Periods in whichWhen snow coversis present over the ground, the sensor shows higher values of reflected radiation in comparison with when compared to snow--free periods (Figure 4).

#### 3.6 Snow depth and precipitation

The AWS is also equipped with a Campbell SR50A sonic ranging sensor (Campbell Scientific SR50A, Campbell Scientific Ltd, SR50A Sonic Ranging Sensor, © 2011https://s.campbellsci.com/documents/cr/manuals/sr50a.pdf-). For the sake of Código de campo cambiado

simplicity we will refer to it as a snow depth sensor, since it is used for measuring how evolves the changing distance between the surface and the sensor (the sensor is placed 2.64 m from the ground, and the being obtained snow depth obtained by subtracting to his this value from the observed distance). This sensor has worked without any

- uninterruptedlyion during the study period and provideds a good elimatology-record of 5 the snow depth evolution in the Izas Experimental Catchment. Therefore, the information onf the snow depth can be used as a reference for other observations of snowpack evolution. The average values for the whole study period are: 89.2093.4 cm for the accumulation period and  $\frac{47.853.32}{2}$  cm for the melting period (Table 7 shows the 10 seasonal values). The temporal evolution of the snow depth is shown in Figure 4.
- In addition, Additionally Figure 4 shows the precipitation values for the period with consistent data in the precipitation gauge (since from the end of end July 2014). The sensor installed is a Geonor T-200B with wind shield (Geonor A/S, geonor T-200B series All-weather precipitation gauges, © 2010http://www.geonor.com/brochures/t-
- 200b-series-all-weather.pdf), which continuously weights the accumulated precipitation 15 (liquid and solid). The height of the gauge orifice is 3.25 m (2.5 m metal pedestrial plus the height of the T-200B inlet). The precipitation accumulated over a certain period wasis calculated by subtracting final and initial weighted values. Table 7 includes the accumulated precipitation for the whole snow year and also during the accumulation 20 and melting periods.

## 4. Information on snow distribution

# 4.1. TLS acquisitions of snow depth distribution

During the five snow seasons presented here, from three to six TLS surveys were 25 carried outaccomplished each year in the Izas Experimental Catchment. TLS are devices that useusing LiDAR technologyies, a remote sensing method that to obtain the distance between a target area and the device. During a TLS data acquisition, the device measures the distance of some hundreds of thousands of points within the area defined by the operator, creating a cloud of data points representing the topography of the target surface. The device used in this study is a long-range TLS (RIEGL LPM-321 (Fig.2), 30

RIEGL Laser Measurements, LPM-321 ©. 2010http://www.riegl.com/uploads/tx\_pxpriegldownloads/10\_DataSheet\_LPM\_321\_18\_ 03-2010.pdf). The technical characteristics of this model are: (i) light pulses of 905 nm

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wavelength (near-infrared), appropriate for acquiring data from snow cover (Prokop, 2008); (ii) a minimum angular step width of  $0.018^{\circ}$ ; (iii) a laser beam divergence of  $0.046^{\circ}$ ; and (iv) a maximum working distance of 6000 m. In order to reduce topographic shadowing (note that terrain topography limits the line-of-sight of the TLS)

- two scanning positions (Scan station on Fig.1) were established within the study site
  (Figure 1). Additionally-12 reflected targets were <u>also fixed onon</u> the terrain (Fig. 2). The location of these targets was acquired on each TLS acquisition date, since this information is used in the post-processing phase for comparing the point clouds acquired <u>onin the</u> different dates. The protocol for obtaining the information in the field and the methodology for generating the snow depth distribution maps for the different TLS survey dates is fully explained in Revuelto et al., 2014a. The method is mainly based on calculating the elevation difference between the point clouds obtained on different dates with and without snow <u>coverpresence acrossover</u> the study area. The final products are snow depth distribution maps with <u>a</u> grid size of 1x1 m, with a mean absolute error of 0.07 m in the <del>obtained</del> snow depth values (Revuelto et al., 2014a).
  - Figure 5 shows the snow depth maps obtained for the 2012/13 snow season. It is presented t The information forof this snow season is presented because six TLS surveys were completed achieved. Furthermore, Additionally the accumulated snow depths were significant quite important and thus provide reproduce an interesting
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example of snowpack evolution <u>overon</u> time. These maps show the high spatial variability of the snowpack within the study area, with marked changes in the snow depth distribution <u>within</u> short distances. <u>Also it isIt was also</u> observed how high accumulation areas had<u>we largeimportant</u> accumulations during the whole snow season, with a thick snowpack for dates <u>onin</u> which the snow cover ha<u>d alreadywe</u> completely melted over <u>largewide</u> areas of the catchment.

Table 8 presents the average snow depth and the maximum snow depth value observed for each TLS acquisition. It is also shown in tThis table also shows the coefficient of variation on each snow distribution map and also the fraction of the snow covered area. The values obtained depict the heavy accumulation of snow important snow depth

30 accumulation occurring in some areas of the catchment, while the average snow depth is lower.

# 4.2. Snow covered area from time-lapse photographs

The Izas Experimental Catchment is also equipped with a Campbell CC640 digital camera (Campbell Scientific Ltd, CC640 Digital Camera, ©

<u>2010https://s.campbellsci.com/documents/sp/manuals/cc640.pdf</u>). This camera was mounted <u>on</u>with a solid metal structure <u>set into the ground with</u>fixed in the terrain with concrete (Figure 2)<del>.</del>, which Hereby it is ensured a constant position <u>to obtain consistent</u> information.that gives consistency to the information obtained. The digital camera has a

- 5 resolution of 640x480 pixels with a focal length of 6-12 mm. The field of view of the photographs obtained with the camera mounted <u>onim</u> the metal structure covers approximately 30 ha (Figure 1), wh<u>ichat</u> represents about a 52% of the total surface covered by the TLS. The camera obtain<u>ed</u>s three pictures per day (time-lapse photography) at 10:00, 11:00 and 12:00 UTC, ensuring a-good illumination of the area.
- 10 Figure 6 <u>contains</u> four photographs <u>fromobtained\_during</u> the 2012/2013 snow season, <u>in which can be observed</u> howing how <u>the</u> snow covered area evolve<u>d</u> in time. The pictures <u>obtained</u> can be projected into a Digital Elevation Model (DEM) of the study site. Projecting the pictures into the <u>1x1 m</u> DEM <u>foralong</u> an entire snow season provides distributed information on the <u>evolution</u> of the snow covered area-<u>evolution</u> in
- 15 the same reference system <u>asof</u> snow depth maps. The approach for projecting the pictures into the DEM is described by (Corripio, 2004) and the specific features of the methodology applied in the Izas Experimental Catchment are fully described in (Revuelto et al., 2016a). The routines applied <u>first makedoes</u>, in first term a viewing transformation <u>consideringallowing for</u> the optics of the camera and<u>a-in</u> second<u>a-term</u> a
- 20 perspective projection, providing a virtual image of the DEM. Therefore, in the second step<sub>1</sub> the correspondence of ground control points within the surveyed area-with the pixels of the photograph must be established. Since this stage is quite sensitiveble, the coordinates of ground control points were acquired with a differential GPS. With this process, images projected-images into the DEM had a 3.3 pixel<sup>2</sup>s performance in the
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<u>calibration of the transformation.</u> Finally, the daily series of the projected images can be definitely binarized to create daily snow presence/absence maps. This information can also be used for other application<u>s</u>, such as as for example to observe the growth timing of plant species.

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Since the binarized snow presence/absence maps <u>were recorded onhave</u> almost a daily frequency (note that about a 20% of all photographs from the camera had to be discarded because cloud or snow<u>presence\_obscureding the camera lens</u>), many parameters can be derived from this information, including the Snow Covered Area temporal evolution, the numbers of days with snow presence or the melt out date (MOD) on each pixel. Figure 7 shows an example of the number of days with snow presence for the 2011/12 and 2012/13 snow season.

#### 5. Data availability

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The database presented and described in this article is available for download at Zenodo (<u>Revuelto et al. 2017;</u> https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.848277https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.579979).

Código de campo cambiado

Meteorological data of the AWS are <u>given ready</u>-in .csv format. The meteorological dataset includes observations <u>atim 10-minute-min</u> intervals. . For an easier transferability

- 10 and also to allow a wider post processing, tThe TLS survey point clouds containing the snow depth distribution are available on-line (one file for each TLS acquisition). These files are in ASCII format in the UTM 30T North coordinate system. These point clouds are in the UTM 30T North coordinate system. It is also provided the DEM of the study area in same coordinate system. Cloud-free day photographs from the time-lapse camera
- 15 are available in the online repository, with the correspondence of pixel-ground control points to GPS coordinates. Information on the optics and chip size of the camera is also provided. Additionally all available Melt Out Date distribution maps (MOD, last Julian day with snow presence on each pixel) are included in the database.

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# 6. Summary

The Izas Experimental Catchment is a well-established study area <u>onin</u> the south face of the Pyrenees, in which different meteorological and snow variables are automatically acquired. Additionally, <u>an importantgreat effort has been made</u> on field data acquisition with TLS-has been conducted during over the last five snow seasons and is <u>ongoing.still</u> maintained. The dataset described here is novel in the Pyrenees because, it represents for the first time, it represents high spatial resolution information on the snowpack distribution and its evolution <u>inon</u> time, as well as making being also available continuous information <u>available</u> on meteorological variables. The high quality of the information obtained has <u>already</u> been-<u>already</u> exploited for different studies on the understanding of snowpack dynamics and <del>on</del>-the improvement of simulation approaches <u>toof</u> snowpack evolution in mountain areas (López-Moreno et al., 2012, 2014, Revuelto et al., 2014b, 2016a, 2016b). However, there exist many scientific questions still go

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unanswered, such as the long term influence of topography on snow dynamics, the

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spatial distribution of snow during precipitation and strong wind blowing events. Also, the high inter-annual variability of snow accumulation in the Pyrenees has serious important consequences for water management, especially in the Mediterranean area (García-Ruiz et al., 2011). Thus, it is quitevery important to continue obtaining information on snowpack evolution and on-the meteorological variables that controlling

snow dynamics. This information will allow to-the scientific community to better understand processes involved and allowing amake for better adaptation to climate change scenarios. Moreover, offering the possibility of exploiting the information to other fieldscolleges provides, as INARCH does, the opportunity of establishing new

collaboration networks to push forward the frontiers of science limits in mountain areas.

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Figure 1: The Izas Experimental Catchment study site. Upper left figure shows the
location of the study site. In the lower left panel, it is shown an overview picture of the catchment with marginal snow presence. The right map shows the topographic characteristics of the catchment and the location of the TLS scanning positions (Scan stations), the meteorological station and the field of view of the time-lapse camera
(continuous lines from Scan station 1).



Figure 2: Pictures of the experimental site equipment. (A): AWS sensors. 1A: Young
Wind Sensor, 2A: Radiation shield with HMP 155 humidity and temperature probe, 3A BP1 air pressure recorder, 4A: IR100 infrared remote temperature sensor, 5A: CMA6 Kipp & Konen albedometer, 6A: SR50A range sensor, 7A: Geonor T-200B with wind shield, 8A: CR3000 datalogger and modem, 9A: Solar panel and battery, 10A: Campbell Scientific 107 ground temperature probes. (B) RIEGL LPM-321 TLS mounted <u>onim</u> the tripod during an acquisition campaign. In tThe upper-right part it is showsn one of the 12 fixed reflective targets fixed on the terrain. (C) Campbell CC640 camera mounted in the metal structure. 1C: digital camera inside the enclosure house, 2C: modem, 3C: protection glass of the digital camera, 4C: frontal view of the camera and its structure.

Figure 3: Wind roses showing the frequency (in %) of wind speed and direction

5 | observed in the AWS for accumulation (upper wind roses) and melting (lower wind roses) snow seasons.





**Figure 4**: Temporal evolution of meteorological variables during the study period. From top to bottomup panel to the low panel is shown is air temperature and surface temperature (from the IR sensor); ground temperature for the four depths; global (Incident) and reflected solar irradiance; and punctual snow depth (SD) and daily accumulated precipitation (Pcp) (sum of solid and liquid).



Figure 5 Snow depth distribution maps obtained for the six TLS acquisitions dates of the 2012/2013 snow season.



22/02/2013

13/05/2013

06/07/2013

Figure 6 Example of a sequence of four photographs for the 2012/13 snow season, showing the evolution of the snow cover.ed area evolution.



**Figure 7** Number of days with snow presentee for each pixel for 2011/12 and 2012/13 snow seasons.

#### **Tables:**

				Air tempera	ture (°C)			
		2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	<u>2016/17</u>	
Mean	Annual	5.13±7.73	$3.50\pm6.88$	4.17±6.11	5.26±7.02	$5.08 \pm 6.69$	<u>Nan</u>	
	Accumulation	-1.15±5.69	$-2.78\pm4.57$	-1.71±3.44	$-1.65 \pm 4.87$	$-1.66 \pm 3.69$	-0.56±4.20	
	Melting	$5.80 \pm 6.60$	2.79±4.79	5.51±4.07	7.23±4.86	4.45±5.12	7.58±6.00	
Max	Annual	25.87	20.85	21.42	24.07	24.23	<u>Nan</u>	
	Accumulation	7.89	10.69	10.20	10.98	11.62	<u>11.39</u>	
	Melting	18.29	17.13	18.32	23.07	19.26	<u>22.51</u>	
Min	Annual	-18.51	-15.26	-11.35	-15.24	-11.78	<u>Nan</u>	
	Accumulation	-18.51	-15.26	-11.35	-15.24	-11.78	<u>-14.97</u>	
	Melting	-9.33	-9.04	-3.71	-4.76	-8.20	<u>-8.33</u>	
	Table 1. Mass	hush weter have	deriver of a	. to man another a f	an the first and	for		

**Table 1:** Mean and standard deviation of air temperature for the five snow seasons for the annual, accumulation and melting periods. Also are shown maximum and minimum air temperatures for the each period of the snow seasons (\*Nan means no data observed during the period).

	Relative Air Humidity (%)						
	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	<u>2016/17</u>	
Annual	59.9±18.9	70.1±17.1	68.8±17.3	64.8±19.2	65.9±18.5	<u>Nan</u>	
Accumulation	67.1±18.1	70.5±19.3	72.7±15.8	$62.8 \pm 22.2$	71.3±18.3	<u>61.0±20.8</u>	
Melting	57.1±15.2	74.4±14.5	68.7±15.9	63.9±15.8	69.9±14.1	<u>62.9±15.65</u>	

Table 2: Mean and standard deviation of relative humidity for the five snow seasons for10the annual, accumulation and melting periods(\*Nan means no data observed during the<br/>period).

	Atmospheric air pressure (mbar)						
	2011/12 2012/13 2013/14 2014/15 2015/16						
Annual	794.5±5.9	790.7±7.7	791.3±6.5	792.4±6.9	791.8±7.1	<u>Nan</u>	
Accumulation	790.9±7.2	784.7±8.3	786.4±6.9	789.7±9.3	786.8±7.9	<u>788.5±5.5</u>	
Melting	797.1±3.6	790.9±6.6	791.8±4.6	$794.2 \pm 4.4$	788.9±5.4	<u>791.5±5.0</u>	

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**Table 3:** Mean and standard deviation of atmospheric air pressure for the five snowseasons for the annual, accumulation and melting periods.

				<b>Ground Tem</b>	peratures (°C	!)	
	Depth	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	<u>2016/17</u>
	( <b>cm</b> )					_	
Annual	0	Nan*	$4.60 \pm 6.71$	$5.13 \pm 6.45$	$5.98 \pm 7.02$	$4.24 \pm 6.02$	<u>Nan</u>
	5	Nan	$4.35 \pm 5.67$	$5.61 \pm 6.52$	$6.06 \pm 5.52$	$4.66 \pm 5.12$	<u>Nan</u>
	10	Nan	$4.38 \pm 5.19$	$5.07 \pm 5.46$	$5.99 \pm 6.09$	$4.55 \pm 4.87$	<u>Nan</u>
	20	Nan	$4.26 \pm 4.66$	$5.01 \pm 4.62$	$5.08 \pm 3.26$	4.51±3.88	<u>Nan</u>
Acc.	0	Nan	0,22±0,05	0.03±0.04	-0.26±0.87	-0.66±1.13	<u>Nan</u>
	5	Nan	$0,69\pm0.12$	$0.11 \pm 0.08$	-0.39±0.54	0.99±0.10	<u>Nan</u>
	10	Nan	$1.10\pm0.16$	$0.31 \pm 0.18$	-0.27±0.23	$0.98 \pm 0.11$	<u>Nan</u>
	20	Nan	1.34±0.19	$0.94 \pm 0.06$	0.39±0.08	1.57±0.17	<u>Nan</u>
Melting	0	Nan	1.21±3.49	5.53±6.41	7.87±6.41	4.57±5.46	<u>Nan</u>
	5	Nan	$1.04 \pm 2.45$	$5.19 \pm 6.08$	$7.03\pm5.71$	$4.43 \pm 5.09$	<u>Nan</u>
	10	Nan	$1.06 \pm 1.78$	$4.15 \pm 4.68$	$6.46 \pm 5.32$	4.15±4.79	<u>Nan</u>
	20	Nan	$1.04{\pm}1.36$	$3.46 \pm 3.49$	$5.35 \pm 4.15$	$3.50 \pm 3.47$	<u>Nan</u>

**Table 4:** Mean and standard deviation ground temperature for different depths for thefive snow seasons for the annual, accumulation and melting periods (\*Nan means nodata observed during the period).

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	Surface temperature (°C)						
	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	<u>2016/17</u>	
Annual	Nan	$1.29 \pm 7.83$	2.44±7.06	3.26±8.14	3.26±7.71	<u>Nan</u>	
Accumulation			-4.18±2.65	$-5.36 \pm 3.61$	-4.32±2.99	<u>-3.68±3.58</u>	
	Nan	-5.38±3.58					
Melting			$3.75 \pm 5.16$	$5.95 \pm 6.02$	$3.47 \pm 5.96$	<u>6.64±6.67</u>	
	Nan	$-0.09 \pm 3.44$			_		

**Table 5**: Mean surface temperature from the infrared sensor for the five snow seasons for the annual, accumulation and melting periods (\*Nan means no data observed during the period).

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		2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	
Annual	Global	219.48±110.60	205.36±114.50	196.64±110.49	207.63±116.50	211.03±113.95	<u>Nan</u>
	Reflected	$82.87 \pm 49.60$	$96.20 \pm 64.92$	$79.35 \pm 52.78$	$76.34 \pm 64.90$	83.61±53.76	<u>Nan</u>
Acc.	Global	181.09±68.18	154.83±67.30	150.04±84.02	166.97±65.80	152.83±83.18	<u>182.64±85.36</u>
	Reflected	99.14±40.34	117.04±44.35	108.50±47.43	114.24±44.35	$108.94 \pm 48.59$	<u>110.29±41.13</u>
Melting	Global	245.37±120.56	289.59±114.10	283.33±102.80	287.65±117.15	278.71±114.37	<u>301.07±107.57</u>
	Reflected	103.11±67.15	$169.56 \pm 60.28$	114.83±61.10	90.51±60.28	$120.06 \pm 67.30$	<u>104.28±66.7</u>

**Table 6**: Mean global and reflected radiation for the five snow seasons for the annual, accumulation and melting periods <u>(\*Nan means no data observed during the period).</u>-

		Accumulated total precipitation (mm)							
		2011/12	2011/12 2012/13 2013/14 2014/15 2015/16						
Ann	Pcp (mm)	Nan	Nan	Nan	1572	411	<u>2016/17</u>		
Acc.	SD (cm)	$14.74 \pm 14.60$	145.61±52.3	148.54±41.60	55.90±36.50	81.42±31.67	<u>Nan</u>		
	Pcp (mm)	Nan	Nan	Nan	454.35	147.22	<u>114.44±73.80</u>		
Mlt.	SD (cm)	1.60±1.57	131.42±64.64	51.57±64.95	12.70±22.24	64.30±59.85	<u>82.38</u>		
	Pcp (mm)	Nan	Nan	Nan	249.61	121.05	<u>25.14±32.22</u>		

**Table 7:** Accumulated precipitation (liquid and solid) for snow seasons with observations available. Average snow depth values for accumulation and melting periods for the five snow seasons (\*Nan means no data observed during the period).

D	Date		Max SD (m)	SCA (%)	CV
	22-Feb	0.46	5.53	67.2	1.35
C	02-Ap <mark>b</mark> r	0.17	3.86	33.5	2.23
Snow	17-Apr	0.56	5.34	94.1	1.07
2011/12	02-May	0.90	6.11	98.8	0.74
2011/12	14-May	0.21	4.47	30.9	1.90
	24-May	0.09	4.32	18.9	1.29
	17-Feb	2.91	10.89	98.8	0.63
C	03-Apr	3.19	11.20	100	0.56
Snow	25-Apr	2.42	10.10	96.3	0.76
2012/12	06-Jun	1.98	9.64	86.4	0.86
2012/13	12-Jun	1.69	8.90	77.1	0.90
	20-Jun	0.76	7.97	67.0	1.35
<b>C</b>	03-Feb	2.16	10.20	96.0	0.59
Snow	22-Feb	2.56	10.47	98.6	0.57
2012/14	09-Apr	2.54	9.72	89.0	0.65
2013/14	05-May	1.67	9.02	75.2	0.87
<u>Can array</u>	06-Nov	0.22	2.78	85.0	0.81
Snow	26-Jan	0.74	4.88	89.3	0.85
2014/15	06-Mar	2.13	11.55	94.0	0.69
2014/13	12-May	0.67	7.75	56.0	1.21
Snow	04-Feb	0.82	6.20	91.1	0.63
season	25-Apr	1.86	10.82	97.0	0.50
2015/16	26-May	1.16	7.81	74.8	0.70
<u>Snow</u>	<u>20-Jan</u>	<u>1.26</u>	<u>6.33</u>	<u>93</u>	<u>0.72</u>
<u>season</u> 2016/17	<u>08-May</u>	<u>0.77</u>	<u>7.25</u>	<u>57.2</u>	<u>0.81</u>

**Table 8:** Observed mean and maximum snow depth values, snow covered area (SCA, % of the total area covered by the TLS), and coefficient of variation for the observed snow distribution on the TLS survey dates.